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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the first year's work of a two-year project was to identify education and work program characteristics that are indicators of the normative (work-centered) and personalistic (person-centered) dimensions of eighteen experiential education programs and to determine common characteristics and whether programs can be classified based on resulting data. Procedures included interviews with program participants, coordinators, and on-site workplace personnel. Twelve major indicators of program type, indicating normative and personalistic dimensions, were isolated: (1) program goals, (2) nature of career growth; (3) self-concept development; (4) role of program staff; (5) interpretation and internalization; (6) focus of learning activities in work settings; (7) diversity of work setting experiences; (8) duration of program experiences; (9) relationship of learners to ongoing work and workers; (10) method of supervision employed by resource person; (11) pay; and (12) academic credit. By calculating the proportional relationships of these dimensions, five program types were identified for the typology: normative; personalistic; and transactional: adaptive, reciprocal, and transitional. (Recommendations for the second year of the study and for further research are also given.) (MEK)

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WORK-CENTERED AND PERSON-CENTERED DIMENSIONS OF EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR A TYPOLOGY OF PROGRAMS

Research and Development Series No. 197

by

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1979

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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FOREWORD

Many educational programs have been developed to assist youth in their transitions from school to work. These out-of-school academic and vocational learning enterprises enable learners to acquire knowledge skills, and attitudes for their participation in a variety of life roles. One learning site utilized by these experiential learners is the workplace. It is there that the special interactions of the workplace norms with the needs and dispositions of learners have the potential for creating a wide variety of experiential programs.

This document reports the results of an exploratory study designed to create a typology of programs based on the normative and personalistic dimensions of experiential education. This preliminary typology is unique in that it represents a breakthrough in providing researchers a classification system theoretically based and empirically tested. It also provides further understanding of the dynamics of the work-centered and person-centered dimensions of programs and their effects on learner outcomes.

Jacob W. Getzels, Professor of Education and Behavioral Sciences, University of Chicago, served as consulting scholar for the study. His guidance and support in assisting the staff in interpreting his theoretical constructs and applying them to the study are greatly appreciated. Appreciation is also expressed to the National Institute of Education for sponsoring the study and to Ronald B. Bucknam of Home Community, and Work Group of the Teaching and Learning Division of NIE, who served as Project Officer. We are grateful to the following individuals who provided insightful critiques of this study: Henrietta Schwartz, Dean of the College of Education, Roosevelt University; Joseph Grannis, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; and Catherine Fitch, Senior Program Associate, The National Center for Research in Vocational Education. Finally, we wish to thank all the individuals associated with the programs who provided the staff interviewers time and materials.

Recognition is due Richard Miguel for his overall direction of the study and for the preparation of this report; Louise Wasson for assisting in the interview phase; Katherine Twarog for her work on the literature review; Lester Jipp for preparing data and materials for the analysis phase; Jeanette McConaughy for editing the report; and Jackie Masters for coordinating technical production of the report.

Robert E. Taylor
Executive Director
The National Center for Research
in Vocational Education

PREFACE

This document is an interim report of the first year of a two-year study to develop a typology of experiential education programs based on the relationship of learner needs and dispositions to the norms and expectations of workplaces. The purpose of the first year's work was to identify program characteristics that are indicators of the normative (work-centered) and personalistic (person-centered) dimensions of eighteen experiential education programs; to determine how that information can be classified to reveal the normative and personalistic dimensions that cut across all eighteen programs, and to ascertain whether or not the programs can be classified using the resulting data. The data collection strategy for the first year's work was interviewing program participants, coordinators, and workplace personnel on site. This qualitative phase will be followed by a quantitative phase in the second year.

The first year's work found twelve major areas of program characteristics that are indicators of normative and personalistic dimensions. By calculating the proportional relationships of those dimensions, five program types were identified for the preliminary typology.

By contributing a better understanding of the learned social behavior resulting from different emphases on work-centered and person-centered experiential education, the preliminary typology enables persons associated with experiential education--from learners to policy makers--to make informed decisions regarding the expenditures of time, money, and human resources. Because of the fundamental nature of that knowledge, it can lead to a theoretically-based and empirically-tested typology of programs.

Such a typology is needed so that information can be gathered systematically and research findings can be made applicable to more than individual programs. Studies in experiential education guided by such a framework can result in collecting not only pertinent and precise information, but also information that can be interrelated in a theoretically consistent manner.

Special Note to Reader

This report was derived from A Typology of Programs Based on Work-Centered and Person-Centered Dimensions of Experiential Education: Technical Information and Appendices which contains among other things the raw data. In the interest of conserving resources, only a few of these documents were printed. For those who are interested, the technical information and appendices document is available at the National Center.

CHAPTER I

OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH PROGRAM

As a context for and background to the typology of experiential education programs study, this chapter provides an overview of the entire Learning-in-Work Research Program. This overview begins with an operational definition of experiential education and its special reference to planned academic and vocational learning experiences in workplaces. This is followed by an explication of the need for general knowledge about experiential programs, the overall research framework for the Learning-in-Work Research Program, and the current research agenda of which the typology study is a part.

Experiential Education Defined

Increasingly over the years, the education sector and society at large have been attempting to expand the "formal" educational environment beyond schooling to include other aspects of the community, especially work settings. Much of this effort has recently come to be known as experiential education--a term used to differentiate it from the learning that takes place in schools. Programs that can be referred to as experiential education are as follows: experience-based career education, cooperative education, CETA/YETP, action learning, apprenticeship, clinical experiences, supervised external study, field experience, educational practice, work experience education, work-study, external degree programs, internship, and others.

But the term *experiential education* is not self-denoting. Since all education is acquired through experience in one form or another, it is when experiential education is applied to a particular area of educational pursuit that the term assumes special meaning. The particular kind of experiential education of concern here is planned educational experience in workplaces--including both academic and vocational programs. When individuals enter work environments for the purposes of developing knowledge and skills, for enhancing career development through observing and performing work experiences, or for improving decision-making skills through studying the social context of work, they are learning experientially. Hence, for this research effort,

Experiential education means planned educational experiences designed to enable learners to acquire attitudes, skills, and knowledge by observing, studying, and performing work and other life roles in the actual environments where those roles normally occur.[1]

The Need for General Knowledge

The various programmatic forms of experiential education involve representatives from business, labor, education, and community organizations. All are enthusiastic about experiential education, but many agree that the time has come for systematic investigation. At this time the experiential education field is surfeited with opinion-type information. However, common or fundamental knowledge about experiential education is only just beginning to be shared across program types despite the need for and interest in such information.

Generally, persons in the field would like to know more about the effects of experiential education, how it can be planned and better implemented to improve the impact of the programs, and what content and processes of experiential learning can be employed to achieve program objectives for particular target populations. Additionally, they need to know more about how experiential strategies can be directed toward facilitating growth and learning in areas such as personal, social, and career development. Because experiential education operates in the expanded educational environment outside the schools, more needs to be known about what can be learned in work settings and how various institutions can effectively participate to achieve program purposes and how they can collaborate to attain complementary goals. More also needs to be known about the new roles and relationships created as a result of experiential education and the dynamics of learning within the school and workplace arrangements. Other areas that need to be investigated are the factors within the entire area of experiential education that contribute to or hinder the success of the programs. While there is considerable testimony that programs are successful, more needs to be known about what elements of experiential education lead to quality programs.

The areas in which there seems to be considerable interest, but not systematic knowledge are three-fold:

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1. Richard J. Miguel, ed., Experiential Education Policy Guidelines (Columbus, Ohio: The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1979), p. 1.

(1) the individual learners and how to conceptualize and implement experiential learning to maximize benefits for them; (2) the institutions, both formal and nonformal, that constitute, create, or affect the learning environments; and (3) the relationships existing between those individuals and the various institutions which effect quality experiential education.

The Overall Research Framework

The Learning-in-Work Research Program designed a systems analysis model for the investigation of experiential education. The bases of this framework were two-fold: (1) the inquiry models designed by Getzels and associates,[2] and (2) Schwartz's work and consultation.[3] The general research framework depicted in Figure 1 is described briefly in the following section.

Systems Elements

As viewed from this framework, experiential education is a system operating within, drawing from, affecting and being shaped by other aspects of the environment. While a system can be conceptualized in various ways, we want to know more about five elements of the system of experiential education: content, process, function, structure, and pattern. To understand experiential education we must know the nature and interaction of each of these elements as well as their relationships to and interactions with other aspects of the environment in which experiential education functions. For the duration of this research program

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2. Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Roald F. Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process (New York: Harper and Row, 1968). Dr. Getzels, R. Wendell Harrison Distinguished Professor of Education and Behavioral Sciences, The University of Chicago, is the principal consulting scholar for the typology study.

3. Henrietta Schwartz, "Continuity and Change in Temporary Systems," in Student Initiated Activities: A Strategy in Youth Advocacy, ed. John Goodman (Burlington: University of Vermont, 1979), pp. 55-76.

FIGURE 1: FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY OF LEARNING IN WORK

UNITS OF ANALYSIS / SYSTEM ELEMENTS		YOUTH (Individuals)	WORK SETTINGS (Institutions)	SCHOOL/WORK SETTING RELATIONSHIPS (Relationships)
Content	What is to be learned experientially that will contribute to youths' personal, social, and career development?	What are youths' needs, levels of readiness and capacities for learning the content?	What can be learned in work settings?	What is the relationship between what is taught in schools and what is learned in work settings?
Process	How can the content be learned?	How can experiential education accommodate different learning styles?	How is the content learned in work settings?	How are learnings gained from school and work settings integrated?
Function	What purposes can experiential education serve?	What are youths' personal expectations for experiential education?	What are the expectations of the work settings for experiential learners?	What do school and work-setting learning experiences contribute to one another?
Structure	What plans, conditions, and arrangements are required for experiential education?	What structural variations are required in experiential education to meet differing student characteristics?	What conditions and arrangements in work settings are required to facilitate experiential education?	What conditions and arrangements are required to ensure the complementarity of school and work-setting experiences?
Pattern	What are the long-term consequences of experiential education?	What are the personal, and career development patterns resulting from youths' participation in experiential education?	What are the patterns of institutionalization of experiential education in various work settings?	What sequences of school experiences and work-setting experiences are likely to promote optional personal, social, and career development for youth?

these elements can be used in the study of experiential education for two general purposes: (1) to identify the most efficient means to attain specific program goals for specific populations and (2) to identify the combination of inputs that produce the most beneficial experiential learning outcomes. The use of the terms and the corresponding basic research questions are as follows:

Terms	Research Questions
Content: the substance of the system as revealed in the learning achieved by members of the system	What is to be learned experientially that will contribute to youths' personal, social, and career development?
Process: the operation of the system	How can the content be learned?
Function: the purposes and effects of the system and their relationship to the structure	What purposes can experiential education serve and with what effects?
Structure: the organizational elements of the system	What plans, conditions, and arrangements are required for experiential education?
Pattern: two or more elements which form a consistent relationship or behavior	What are the long-term consequences of experiential education?

Units of Analysis

The basic units of analysis are three-fold: (1) individuals, (2) institutions, and (3) relationships between institutions. For all studies within this research program the units of analysis at this time are as follows: youth, work settings, and school/work-setting relationships. A discussion of each follows.

> Youth. The focus here is on experiential learners and their relationship to the five system elements. Youth here refers to secondary school students, postsecondary school (especially community college) students, and out-of-school youth who are interested in or may benefit from experiential education. Further differentiation of these subpopulations include categories such

as handicapped, disadvantaged, and minorities depending upon the relevance to a specific study.

Work settings. The focus here is on the work settings which provide environments for experiential learning and their relationship to the five system elements. "Work settings" here refers to any place in which work is performed. The learners' experiences in these settings may be in a paid, nonpaid, or volunteer status. This status *vis-á-vis* the status of regular workers in the setting often determines or is determined by the nature of the learners' participation.

School/work-setting relationships. The focus here is on schools and their relationship to work settings in terms of the five system elements. The transition from school to work, as assisted by experiential education programs, often requires an accumulation of learnings from both settings. But there is no magic formula. What to learn, how much, in what setting, at what times, for which learners are not well known.

The Current Research Agenda

Using the framework mentioned above, the Learning-in-Work Research Program, under the sponsorship of the National Institute of Education, developed a research agenda for the first eighteen months (July 1, 1978 to November 30, 1979), consisting of six small-scaled exploratory studies. The remainder of this document concerns only the reporting of the study to develop the typology.[4]

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4. Reports of the five other studies are: Louise E. Wasson et al., Collaboration in Experiential Education: A Profile of Participant Expectations; Lester F. Jipp et al., Priority Concerns Concerns of Five Groups Involved in Experiential Education Programs; Deborah Dye Coleman et al., Youth Transition to Adult Roles: A Preliminary Investigation; Katherine J. Twarog et al., Education and Work Programs: Transitional Educative Cultures; and Michael R. Crowe et al., Retention of Concepts Resulting from Learning by Experience: Preliminary Investigation of the Retention of Selected Reading and Mathematical Concepts Resulting from Students Enrolled in a Traditional Learning Environment and in a Learning-in-Work Environment.

CHAPTER II

INTRODUCTION TO THE TYPOLOGY STUDY

The Learning-in-Work Research Program is conducting a two-year exploratory study to develop a typology of workplace-based experiential education programs. The basis of this typology is the relationship of learner needs and dispositions to the norms and expectations of workplaces (i.e., the experiential learning environment). This typology will not only provide researchers a theoretically based and empirically reliable classification tool but also will give practitioners a clearer perspective of the effects of the personalistic (person-centered) and normative (work-centered) dimensions of experiential programs.

The following is a report of the first year's work. In this chapter, the reader will find the theoretical background for the study, the statement of the problem, the anticipated contribution, and the objectives of the study.

Theoretical Background

Experiential education programs can be classified in many ways by content, process, function, structure, or pattern. Therefore, though several typologies may exist, no single typology can capture all the characteristics of the programs. In developing a typology, one must choose a theoretical formulation that is relevant and reasonably well researched. Because experiential education concerns the educational productivity that results from interactions of learners with workplaces, the work on this typology will be based on the interactive function of individuals with institutions described in Getzels' sociological role theory.[1]

Getzels' conception of behavior resulting from participation in a social system is divided into two dimensions: normative and personalistic. The normative or nomothetic dimension refers to work organizations, their roles, and their expectations. The personalistic or idiographic dimension refers to experiential learners, their personalities, and their needs and dispositions. Figure 2 illustrates Getzels' conceptualization.

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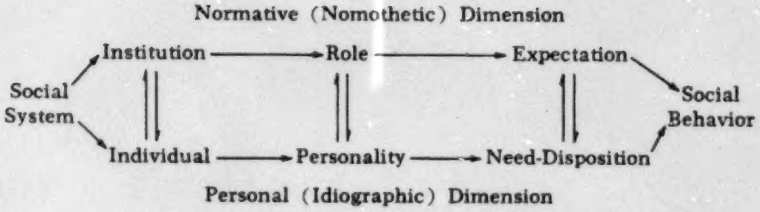
1. Getzels, Social Process (1968), pp. 79-107



Source: Getzels, Social Process (1968), p. 80.

FIGURE 2: The Normative and Personalistic Dimensions of Social Behavior

Applied to this study, the key terms are as follows:

social system	=	experiential education program[2]
institutions	=	work organizations
individual	=	experiential learners
social behavior	=	learner outcomes

The classification principle to be used in developing the typology is the extent to which the program produces normative or personalistic behavior. This determination is based on the following: B = f(RXP), where observed behavior is the function of the interactions of institutional role defined by expectations, and personality of the learners defined by their needs and dispositions. The prospective classification framework is Figure 3.

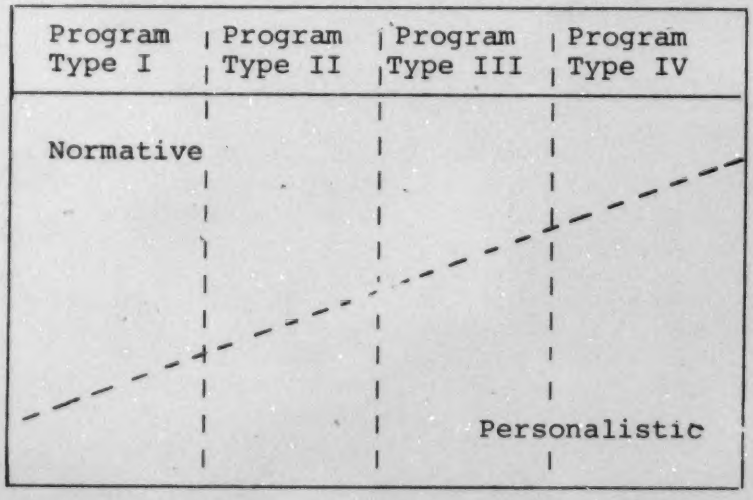


FIGURE 3: Prospective Framework for the Typology

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2. N.B.: The phenomenon under investigation is the relationship of the learner needs *vis-á-vis* the norms and expectations of workplaces. The school is not overlooked as it may at first seem. Quite the contrary. The school is represented by the program which it sponsors. The way in which the school affects the relationship between learners and workplaces is the basis for classifying the program.

It is theoretically possible for a program to develop only normative behavior in the learner. In this case, the behavior resulting from program participation would closely parallel the expectations of the work roles of the work organizations. Conversely, to develop only personalistic behavior would allow the needs and dispositions of the learners complete freedom of expression. However, neither situation is likely to occur, since we would expect interplay between normative and personalistic dimensions.

Figure 3 illustrates the proportion of interplay between normative and personalistic variables represented by a line cutting through the two. At the left (Program Type I), the proportion of behavior shaped by institutional role expectations is relatively large, whereas the proportion of behavior shaped by the learner is relatively small. At the right (Program IV), the proportions are reversed. In these terms, an on-the-job training program for a particular occupation in a particular organization would tend toward the left, whereas a program of career-exploration experiences in a variety of work settings would be to the right. Program-Types II and III (or any number appearing between the extremes) reflect normative and personalistic behaviors respectively but also include significant proportions of the other behavior.

The Problem

The problem which this study addresses is the development of a comprehensive classification system theoretically based and empirically tested which can guide systematic research on questions fundamental to workplace-based experiential education programs.

To date no such typology has been developed. In the main the existing classifications of experiential programs have been descriptive of obvious structural features. They have not been theoretically based and empirically tested, nor have they been used to guide systematic research across programs. Instead the majority of research has been directed toward individual programs.

In addition to the fact that these experiential programs demonstrate sufficient similarities to justify labeling them "experiential education," they also exhibit salient characteristics that distinguish one from the other. To classify them meaningfully, then, is to reveal a logical array of unique relationships of key dimensions common to all programs to be classified, maintaining theoretical consistency and conceptual clarity.

Anticipated Contribution

A typology of programs is needed if information is to be gathered systematically and research findings applied to more than individual programs. Studies in experiential education guided by such a framework can result in the collection of information which is not only pertinent and precise but which can be related in a theoretically consistent manner.

Experiential education typology construction is more than a provocative and creative activity. It is an arduous task, requiring a thorough grasp of the sociological, psychological, cultural, economic, and humanistic dimensions of human development. No one study can accomplish the task; however, this study can make a contribution by providing part of the knowledge that is required.

Although persons involved with a given experiential program understand it well, having a reasonable knowledge of its purpose and function, we know little about all programs as a group. Researchers are hampered in sharing findings because of their inability to demonstrate clearly how an isolated finding on one program relates to other programs. Program planners and implementors, grasping only superficially what is happening in other programs, tend to misapply practices. Legislators and other policy persons are stymied when they are challenged to choose among programs for the distribution of funds.

This study examines one fundamental aspect of experiential education: the relationship of experiential learners with their varying needs and dispositions to one of society's most basic functions--work, as represented by the institutions, roles, and expectations associated with it. Gaining an understanding of that working relationship will aid all decision makers associated with experiential education--from students to policy makers. Because of its fundamental nature, this knowledge has the potential for becoming the cornerstone, but not the entity itself, of a theoretically based and empirically tested typology.

The Objectives

The first year of this two-year study will collect qualitative data to answer the following research question:

> *Can experiential education programs be classified according to the relationship existing between workplace role expectations and learner needs and dispositions?*

To answer that question, key methodological objectives must be met:

- *To identify which program characteristics are indicators of the normative and personalistic dimensions of experiential education*

- *To determine how to categorize the program information to reveal the normative and personalistic dimensions across the programs*

- *To convert the categorized program information to show the proportional relationships for each program*

- *To display the proportional relationships to reveal the program types*

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW

Although there have been research efforts and much writing related to experiential education, there has been little if any study of the relationship of normative and personalistic dimenstions, the particular dynamics of the interaction of these two dimensions, and the possible mediating effects of experiential programs which bring individuals into contact with the expectations of the workplace. Consequently, conceptualizations of typologies have resulted without such information.

This study, however, does not pretend to be totally in *terra incognita*. Indeed, "normative" and "personalistic" are such sweeping terms that some may argue for inclusion of all literature on experiential education and its participants. In spite of this fact, the only three areas discussed will be those which contribute to the general progression of the study: (1) the normative features of workplaces and their implication for educating individuals, (2) experiential education with a brief overview of developments and research, and (3) existing typologies of experiential education programs.

The Normative Features of Workplaces: Implications for Educating Individuals *

Bennett and Tumin have defined six functional prerequisites of societal survival and continuity: (1) to maintain the biologic functioning of the group members, (2) to reproduce new members for the group, (3) to socialize new members into functioning adults, (4) to produce and distribute goods and services necessary to life, (5) to maintain order within the group and between itself and outsiders, and (6) to define the "meaning of life" and maintain the motivation to survive and engage in the activities necessary for survival."[1] This study of normative and personalistic dimensions of experiential programs focuses primarily on the third prerequisite as it relates to the other five.

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1. John W. Bennett and Melvin M. Tumin, Social Life: Structure and Function (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1949), pp. 45-62.

* For further discussion, see Twarog, Transitional Cultures, Appendix A.

Most experiential programs use the physical and social environments of workplaces as laboratories for learning. The choices of how they utilize both environments, however, are dependent upon the desired learning outcomes of the programs for individuals, the normative structure of workplaces and its application to the learners, and the balance struck between learner needs and workplace norms.

Workplaces are systems of individuals with social roles and norms organized according to the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. Persons develop technologies to use segments of the physical environment within their cultural frame of values to achieve those ends; they use their technology to perform work, that is, "disciplined and persistent activity devoted to achieving a goal, with the actual activity only instrumental to the final goal of the activity."[2]

An adequate analysis of the normative and personalistic dimensions of experiential programs is dependent on delineating the structural and cultural aspects of the institutions of society--both educational and economic--with which these programs must interact. The system of roles pertinent to the delivery and consumption of goods and services in American society will first be described. Secondly, the norms and values in "the culture of work" that have facilitated the maintenance of this system of roles will be delineated.

System of Work Roles

There have always been a number of occupational roles in American society. Theodorson has defined occupation as "a set of activities centered on an economic role and usually associated with earning a living . . . ." He has noted that "as a specialization of an individual's function in society, occupation is an important factor defining a person's prestige, class, position, and style of life."[3]

Social scientists have commonly distinguished occupational areas. Primary occupations are concerned with the production of raw materials, such as in agriculture, fishing, or hunting. Secondary occupations are concerned with the production of person-made goods or the processing of raw materials. Finally, tertiary

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2. George A. Theodorson and Achilles A. Theodorson, Modern Dictionary of Sociology (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1970), p. 466.

3. Theodorson, Dictionary, p. 280

occupations are concerned with the provision of services, including those in government, management, health, religion, transportation, communication, and personal needs.

In the United States there have been major shifts in employment population within these three types of roles during the past seventy years. These changes indicate the generally recognized economic transition from an industrialized to a post-industrialized society. Figure 4 indicates these sweeping changes in population distribution in types of occupations. The dramatic shift from 1900 to 1974 has been from primary occupations to tertiary occupations, where two out of three persons in the labor force are now employed.

In spite of the shift from primary to tertiary types of employment, there have not been radical changes in the socio-economic levels. Typically, employment periods of economic recession is characterized generally by horizontal or downward mobility.[4]

Because societies are always in a state of flux or change and because the United States has an extensive repertoire of technological know-how, conditions may change. However, the present employment condition with its peculiar supply and demand ratio and the matching system existent in the employment picture are realities not be ignored by experiential programs if learning experiences are to have any career relevance at all.

What all this means is that if all workplaces are possible experiential learning environments, most would be in what is referred to as "working-class" occupations where considerable competition exists for those desiring to scale the occupational hierarchy. This raises specific questions: "Is it worth the time and money to expose learners to jobs they will probably get on their own and to learnings they can easily acquire? It is reasonable to foster a demand for experiential learning in occupational areas where there is little chance of employment? Is experiential learning the most efficient method whereby youth acquire employability skills and attitudes?

Normative Occupational Characteristics

As a pluralistic society, the United States has developed tremendous variation in the types, circumstances, and geographic locations associated with work activities. In accordance with

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4. Robin M. Williams Jr., "Values in American Society," In American Society: A Sociological Interpretation, 3d rev. ed. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1970), pp. 106-10.

FIGURE 4: Historical Changes in Population Distribution in Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Occupations

		Percentage of the Labor Force			
		1900	1930	1960	1970
Primary Occupations:	Farmers and Farm Managers	19.9	12.4	3.9	1.7
	Farm Laborers and Foremen	17.7	8.8	2.3	1.2
Secondary Occupations:	Craftsmen, Foremen, and Kindred Workers	10.5	12.8	13.8	12.9
	Operators and Kindred Workers	12.8	15.8	17.5	16.3
	Laborers, except Farm and Mine	12.5	11.0	5.1	4.2
Tertiary Occupations:	Professional, Technical, and Kindred Workers	4.3	6.8	10.8	14.0
	Managers, Officials, Proprietors, except Farm	5.8	7.4	8.7	7.9
	Clerical and Kindred Workers	3.0	8.9	14.1	16.9
	Sales Workers	4.5	6.3	7.2	6.8
	Private Household Workers	5.4	4.1	2.7	1.4
	Other Service Workers	3.6	5.7	8.9	10.4
	Not Reported	-	-	5.0	6.3
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: U.S. Census, Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970. (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977) p. 134.

this diversity certain discernible values cluster about the normative occupational characteristics found throughout society. The following descriptions briefly describe several of these value clusters:

1. Cultural distinctions between work and non-work. Opportunities for youth to experience firsthand the work of the community are diminishing. Consequently interpretations of work and its rewards are culturally different from those of youth who lived in the simpler agrarian society of yesteryear when experiential learning opportunities were plentiful.

2. Formal structuring of time in the work environment. Our cultural concept of a workday is more heeded in the abstract than in the day-to-day working environments of other cultures. Though many occupational tasks do not fit into a typical workday or week schedule, the normative structures of many workplaces suggest such a concept. Consequently, before youths take their first jobs, they are socialized to such work norms.

3. The expectation of monolingual business transactions. While there have always been subcultural groups who do not use standard English as their principal language of communication, the members of such groups who desire upward mobility most often have to participate in occupational tasks requiring fluent command of English.

4. Role specialization. A high degree of specialization of work tasks is necessary for the functioning of the total institution. Job descriptions are often rigid, and job requirements often include socio-economic and educational components. However, these requirements of role specialization are often not obvious in the day-to-day experiences of experiential learners, who must rely on others to provide the information.

5. Anticipatory socialization of children. It is often stated (though only partially true) that many children are not familiar with the work world of their parents. However, the picture of work conveyed by parents in the home environment, the work brought home, the work-related problems, the socio-economic effects of jobs on family activities--all are a part of the extended work world that form attitudes and expectations in impressionable minds.

6. Occupational symbolism of work garments. As youths make the transition from school to work environments, they quickly try to emulate the dress of the workers they associate with. Though, in many instances, there may be no explicit dress code or specific dress dictated by the work itself, subtle distinctions regarding dress become a part of the occupational awareness of learners.

7. Work-role controls and sanctions. Failure to comply with work expectations can result in termination. This threat becomes a very powerful "teaching" tool, especially for the paid experiential learner. Also, related to this area are matters of punctuality, honesty, and "putting in day's work for a day's pay." These expectations are sometimes referred to as work ethics--something which many employers expect from learners.

Implications for Experiential Learners

Whatever the purpose of the experiential learners, their very presence in workplaces results in exposure to many of the norms and expectations of those workplaces. In some programs the norms become part of the curriculum, and the program itself takes on a normative identity. Sometimes a program will claim not to be training youths for a specific job but for general work requirements. These requirements usually reflect the program's impression of what it takes to become employable. Another program may maintain that it is unimportant that youth be socialized to the work norms. Yet, who is to know the power of the "educative force" of the work environment itself regarding confirmation or denial of work values associated with the work norms?

Experiential Education: A Brief Overview of Developments and Research

Conrad and Hedin[5] have prepared an excellent review of the literature which concisely presents a case for experiential education, summarizing viewpoints of various advocates, examining relevant and related research attempts, and summarizing the state of recent research. Their conclusions imply that, although

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5. For a more complete discussion of many of the following points, see Dan Conrad and Diane Hedin, "Experiential Education: A Summary of Its Theoretical Foundations and a Critical Review of Recent Research," mimeographed (St. Paul: Center for Youth Development, University of Minnesota, 1979), 79 pages.

promising, research findings are neither precise nor extensive enough to be convincing, and that they are inadequate to provide guidance to practitioners. Despite this state of affairs, some progress is being made. Considerably more is now known about the need for experiential education; many influential individuals and groups are now advocating it. Qualitative evidence of the program benefits continues to grow, and research progress, although slow, is continuing to improve as indicated in the summaries which follow.

The Need and the Advocates

Adolescents find themselves in transition between the roles of minors and students and the roles of adults, especially work roles, without the benefit of our full grasp of their needs and concerns as they undergo these transitions.[6] Further they find themselves in an unusual plight in which their work effort is regarded as an intrusion into an already crowded work world.[7]

It has become conventional wisdom to decry the shortcomings of schools while extolling the virtues of experiential learning--especially in workplaces. There is mounting advocacy for all forms of experiential education as an effective deterrent to the isolation that youth experience in schools and as a vehicle for better transition to adult roles.[8]

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6. Erik H. Erikson, Identity, Youth and Crisis (New York Norton, 1968); J. J. Mitchell, The Adolescent Predicament (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1975): and Ernest Q. Campbell, "Adolescent Socialization," in Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research, ed. David Goslin, pp. 821-59. (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969).

7. David P. Ausubel and R. Montemayor, Theory and Problems of Adolescent Development (New York: Grune and Stratton, 1977).

8. Among the many writings are: James S. Coleman (chairman), Youth: Transition tc Adulthood, A Report of the Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1974); B. F. Brown, "The Reform of Secondary Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973); J. C. Bachman, P. M. O'Malley, and J. Johnston, Youth in Transition, Adolescence to Adulthood--Change and Stability in the Lives of Young Men, vol. 6 (Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1978).

The Benefits

Considerable claim is made regarding the benefits derived by participants in the areas of personal and career development. Erikson's[9] oft-cited work is invoked to give testimony to the prospect that experiential programs aid individuals in their search for identity. Nevertheless little research has been done to prove without doubt that it is the experiential program activities which are the solution to the identity search. Further, little or no control is evident for an experiment as serious as trying to effect identity formation. The issue is not so much that identity is in formation but rather in what way it forms. Is there false accommodation to certain norms? Is there a suitable basis for acceptance or rejection of self and for occupational concepts? Answers to questions such as these are not available. When youngsters are intentionally placed in workplaces to reflect on their self-concepts *vis-á-vis* work-role models and the responses of others to their role playing, it may be fallacious to claim that all results are beneficial to those learners.

Similarly Dewey, Rogers, Coleman and others are almost deified for extolling the virtues of "learning by doing" and "real-life learnings."[10] While there is much to champion in this concept, such a prescription was not advocated for every "doing" activity that someone wanted to espouse. They also directed careful attention to learner outcomes and an appropriate mix of learning strategies. Questions were evoked: What are the implications of blanket, "uncontrollable" exposure to the myriad spectrum of workplace norms? Of designing experiences solely on the basis of learner needs? Of turning individuals out into nontraditional learning environments prematurely or too late?

The Growth of Research

Despite the absence of empirical evidence derived from rigorous, experimental research, the data available, although mixed, are beginning to show self-reported benefits by participants.

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9. Erikson, Identity.

10. John Dewey, Experience and Education (1938; reprint ed., New York: Collier Books, 1979); Carl Rogers, Freedom to Learn (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1969); and James S. Coleman "Experiential Learning and Information Assimilation: Toward an Appropriate Mix," Journal of Experiential Education 2 (1979):6-9. (These are merely a few of their works frequently cited.)

For example, Conrad and Hedin[11] indicated that a large majority of their nationwide sample of 4,000 students felt they had learned more in experiential programs than in school classes. Crowe and Walker[12] reported the idiographic (drawing on Getzel's terminology) quality of secondary school internship programs. Stating that learning activities are "derived through negotiation," they hypothesized that each learner experiences a "unique learning environment." Although it is true that their hypothesis is not conclusive, continuing attention is being directed toward specific normative and personalistic features of these programs. Regarding the normative aspects enlightenment is forthcoming on earnings and occupational status;[13] knowledge of the work world, skill levels, need for better training, and career preparation;[14] on-the-job training and improvement of attitudes toward work;[15] and meeting employer expectations.[16] Regarding personalistic aspects, we are better informed about increasing effective communication;[17]

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11. Dan Conrad and Diane Hedin, "Are Experiential Learning Programs Effective?" National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin 62 (1978):102-07.

12. Michael R. Crowe and Jerry P. Walker, Evaluation of the Executive High School Internships Program Final Report (Columbus, Ohio: The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1977), p. 17.

13. Wellford W. Wilms, The Effectiveness of Public and Proprietary Occupational Training. Technical report submitted to the National Institute of Education, 1974.

14. John T. Grasso, The Contributions of Vocational Education, Training, and Work Experience to the Early Career Achievement of Young Men. (Columbus: The Ohio State University, July 1975).

15. Steven M. Frankel, An Assessment of School-Supervised Work Education Programs. A report of Systems Development Corp. ED 081 998 (Santa Monica: ERIC, 1973).

16. Ernst W. Stromsdorfer, An Economic Analysis of the Work Experience and Career Exploration Program: 1971-1972 School Year. (Bloomington: Indiana University, July 1973).

17. Ronald B. Bucknam, "The Impact of EBCE--An Evaluator's Viewpoint," Illinois Career Education Journal 33 (Spring 1976:32-37.

creating feelings of worth;[18] testing human-relations and coping skills;[19] exploring careers without commitment;[20] personal growth;[21] and the development of morals and ego.[22]

However, much further research is needed before the interactive effects of both the normative and personalistic aspects of these programs can be fully understood.

Existing Typologies of Experiential Education Programs

Existing typologies were developed essentially to describe the range of experiential programs that are offered. None of the typologies reviewed resulted from systematic research nor was any conceived on the basis of some existing theoretical basis. Further, no prior research attempts were made to investigate the possibility of classifying experiential programs along normative and personalistic dimensions. Instead, the existing typologies reflect careful, logical arrangements of programs based on "armchair" reflection by the conceptualizers, on their previous reading experiences and on their program observations. Three of these typologies will be discussed for the sole purpose of illustrating the state of the art of conceptualizing typologies of experiential programs. Interestingly, all the following examples were created at about the same time.

Classification by Content

In discussing his typology, Sexton[23] aptly points out that

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18. N. Friedman, L. W. Sanders, and J. Thompson, The Federal College Work-Study Program (New York: Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, 1973).

19. Donald G. Zanderer, Urban Internships in Higher Education (Washington, D.C.: American Association for Higher Education, 1973). 1973).

20. James R. Davis, "Cooperative Education: Prospects and Pitfalls," Journal of Higher Education 42 (February 1971):139-46.

21. Crowe and Walker, Evaluation

22. Diane Hedin, "Teenage Health Educators: An Action Learning Program to Promote Psychological Development" (Ph.D. diss., University of Minnesota, 1979).

23. Robert F. Sexton, Experiential Education and Community Involvement Practices at the Postsecondary Level: Implications for Career Education (Washington, D.C.: National Advisory Council for Career Education, June 1977), pp. 1-15.

such categorization efforts are potentially more confusing than enlightening. He speaks of problems such as use of similar terms (e.g., cooperative and internships) which convey different meaning to different audiences. He also notes that the criteria that one sets for inclusion and exclusion can impose artificial limits. He proceeds by indicating the following "important similarities" of programs: They are based on propositions that individuals learn in a variety of ways, that learning takes place in many forms, and that learning continues throughout one's life; they share the common belief that some individuals learn most effectively through real activity, in some cases structured work experience and in other cases less structured "field study" . . . .[24]

Then he proceeds to indicate areas where they vary: financial rewards the student might hope to gain; relationship to the development of career related skills or attitudes toward a particular career; relationship to and integration with the academic process; amounts of academic credit; length of time involved; and amount of supervision provided by faculty or other staff.[25]

Sexton then presents a fairly simple seven-group typology which consists of a general description for each of the following types:

1. Cooperative Education
2. Internships (Preprofessional)
3. Internships (General Education)
4. Field Experience
5. Cross-Cultural Field Experience
6. Policy Research Experiences
7. National Youth Service

Sexton concludes the presentation of his typology by explaining the interrelationships among the above types. He does so by listing twelve characteristics and objectives of the programs and then assigns "by personal judgment" a rating ranging from "never an objective" to "always an objective" (see Figure 5).

Sexton's typology is useful for some descriptive purposes. However, the chart in Figure 5 seems to raise more questions than it answers from a classification standpoint: Are program types with similar "totals" more alike and those with disparate "totals" more different? Are ratings for objectives in a patterned relationship for the programs, that is, is it to be assumed that cooperative education is like national youth service since their patterns are similar to each other?

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24. Sexton, Experiential Education, pp. 2-3

25. Ibid., p. 3

FIGURE 5

Typology Example 1: Objectives of Experiential Education Types

	strong academic objectives	general academic objectives	vocational academic objectives	academic supervision	financial compensation	volunteer - community service	real work performed	career relatedness	career preparation objectives	career exploration	personal awareness objectives	cultural objectives	Total
Cooperative Education	3	3	10	3	10	1	10	8	9	3	5	1	67
Internship - (preprofessional	10	3	10	10	7	5	10	8	9	5	5	1	83
Internship - (general education)	10	9	5	10	5	5	10	5	5	7	7	5	83
Field Experience	10	9	3	10	2	5	3	3	2	3	8	7	65
Cross Cultural	9	9	3	7	1	5	5	3	3	2	9	9	65
Policy Research	10	8	5	10	1	5	6	5	3	3	3	3	62
National Youth Service	3	1	3	3	8	2	10	5	3	5	5	5	53

Key:

1 - never an objective
3 - infrequently an objective
5 - sometimes an objective
7 - most often an objective
10 - always an objective

Source: Sexton, Experiential Education (1977), p. 15.

Classification by Differentiating Features

Nesbitt's[26] typology uses a similar approach in that it groups programs by descriptive labels. By listing the program types at the top, he is able to discuss five "differentiating factors":

1. Nature of placement
2. Objectives of the experience
3. The setting
4. Optimal academic level of students
5. Relationships of experience to academic program

Once again his arrangement does not reveal any patterned relationships among characteristics in ways that give insight into the nature of the programs. It should be noted that no such claim is made. What we have here is a matrix device to discuss five key aspects of experiential education--the relationships of which are not made obvious neither within or between "program types."

Classification by Function

In the perceptive monograph by Crowe and Adams[27] on assessing experiential education, an attempt is made "to categorize the diverse and complex array of outcomes of such programs. Figure 6 reveals five categories of "desired outcomes":

1. Job-skill development
2. Academic development
3. Career development and life skills
4. Personal growth development
5. Social remediation

While they do not claim that their framework is for program classification purposes, they do state that programs can be clustered around goals or outcomes. With its assumption that the characteristics listed under each of the five types are dominant ones, this system seems to go at least a step beyond mere description--it uses characteristics of "function" to explain the various programs. The major problem is that some programs could

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26. Hadley S. Nesbitt, College Sponsored Experiential Learning: A CAEL Student Guide (Princeton, N. J.: Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning, 1977), p. 20.

27. Michael R. Crowe and Kay A. Adams, The Current Status of Assessing Experiential Education Programs. (Columbus, Ohio: The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1978) p. 10.

FIGURE 6

Typology Example 2: Framework for Defining the Outcomes of Experiential Education Programs

EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION PROGRAM OUTCOMES	EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION PROGRAM GOALS				
	Job Skill Development	**Academic Development**	**Career Development & Life Skills**	**Personal Growth Development**	**Social Remediation**
	Job Skills Entry level In-depth **Job Placement & Retention** Job/Educational Placement Job Satisfaction Employer Satisfaction Long-Term Employment Earnings Employment Stability/Intensity	**Academic Achievement** Reading Writing Mathematics Problem Solving **Educational Awareness** Attitude toward Learning & School Awareness of Educational Requirements/ Opportunities Informed Course Selection	**Career Skills** Occupational Knowledge Career Planning & Choice Economic Awareness Use of Career Information **Employability Skills** Work Habits Work Attitudes Development of Job Contacts **Life Skills** Adaptability and Coping Citizenship Stable Family Life Productive Use of Leisure Time	**Self-Awareness** Knowledge of Abilities, Interests, Values Self-Concept Self-Esteem Acceptance of Responsibility/ Maturity Decision-Making Skills **Interpersonal Skills** Relations with Family Relations with Peers Relations with Adults Oral Communication	**Economic Indicators** Income Transfer Reduction of Youth Unemployment Cost Effectiveness **Social Indicators** School Return, Retention, Completion Deterrent to Delinquency and Crime Reduction of School Truancy Service to Disadvantaged & Handicapped Learners Reduction of Inequity & Sex Role Stereotyping

Source: Crowe and Adams, Current Status (1978), p. 10.

legitimately lay claim to all characteristics mentioned since "desired outcomes" are the basis for this framework. Further, what would be helpful would be a more symmetrical presentation of the characteristics; for example, skills, awarenesses, attitudes, and social indicators occupy various places on the framework. Could each of these characteristics be discussed across the five types, with differences noted?

Summary

The brief overview of the normative features of workplaces, their implications for educating individuals, and the background of experiential education highlights the tremendous breadth and depth of the normative and personalistic dimensions associated with learning in workplaces. The illustrations of current frameworks or typologies of experiential programs point out that existing conceptualizations are neither theoretically based nor empirically tested and that they are, in most cases descriptive of obvious structural features.

The next chapter presents the procedures for constructing a typology based theoretically on Getzels' model of the relationship of normative and personalistic dimensions of institutions and individuals.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

This chapter consists of the methodological procedures and examples of collected data (see Technical Information and Appendices for complete data). The order of presentation is the overall strategy, instrumentation, sample, data-collection procedures, analysis procedures, and possible sources of unreliability.

Overall Strategy

Phase I of this two-year study concerns qualitative research to answer the question: Can experiential education programs be classified according to the relationship existing between workplace role expectations and learner needs and dispositions? The procedures of the first-year phase may be outlined according to the following steps:

1. After selection of the programs to be studied, descriptive materials (e.g., brochures, catalogs, worksheets, and the like) were obtained and studied prior to field contact.

2. The second step was the identification of role expectations for learners in work setting, the attendant conditions for learning, and needs and dispositions of the learners. This step was accomplished by focused interviews with experiential learners, program coordinators and other staff, and employers (also known as resource persons, mentors, supervisors) of eighteen experiential education programs in four states.

3. The third step was an intensive study of these interviews to determine (a) the program characteristics that were indicators of the normative and personalistic dimensions and (b) an effective data categorization scheme to determine the normative and personalistic dimensions.

Instrumentation

Subsequent to a thorough review of the selected theoretical base and drawing upon extensive experience with programs of this genre, the research program staff identified eighty-seven data cells (see Technical Appendices) to elicit program information on the following: (1) personal data (e.g., age, sex of participants) and program data (e.g., length of time in existence, number of staff, goals), (2) data of a factual nature (e.g., work-setting assignments, number of hours in work setting, high school majors), and (3) data of an attitudinal nature (e.g., work interests, personal interests, aspirations, feelings toward self, others and work).

In an early pilot of the interview schedule the researchers realized that covering the eighty-seven data items and rigorously adhering to the prescribed questions reduced the amount of useful data by curbing the spontaneity of the informants. The final version of the interview schedule (see Technical Appendices) and its use allowed the interviewers and the informants to depart from it freely, adding, emphasizing or deferring questions within a normal, more relaxed atmosphere.

Sample

Eighteen programs (see Figure 7 p. 32-33) in Ohio, California, Florida, and Massachusetts were settings for the interviews. These states were chosen to reflect a semblance of geographic distribution in keeping with research done by Getzels and associates, indicating that role expectations differ by region in the United States.[1] Also, these states were selected because they represent four diverse approaches to experiential education design and implementation. In Florida program development is generally initiated and supported as a result of commitment within the county school district. In Ohio vocational educators have become involved in the implementation of programs on a state-wide level. In Massachusetts community agencies and councils have taken strong leadership in designing and sponsoring options in experiential learning. And in California the Association of Work Experience Educators has been assertive in advocating its views on work experience education. The leadership of that organization coupled with the variety of experiential education options available in that state led us to select California.

The eighteen programs considered in this study were selected on the basis of their conformity to the definition of "experiential education" put forth in Chapter I. These programs place

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1. Getzels et al., Social Process (1968), pp. 168-69

students in workplace settings where they interact with adults, learn skills, explore careers, gain work experience, and earn money and/or high school credit.

Selection of experiential education programs mandated the investigation of a cross-section of programs. Approximately one-third of the programs surveyed were drawn from forty exemplary programs studied for an earlier project.[2] These programs are located in the four states mentioned. Other exemplary programs selected to complete the range required by this study were chosen because of proximity to the first group selected (to minimize cost) and because of a desire to include at least one of each of the following within the final selection: junior high school programs, federally-funded programs, vocational education programs, academic-based programs, technical education programs, out-of-school youth programs, and privately sponsored programs. Beyond that, we included two of some generic models (but in different cities) to check whether differences would appear in our findings on ostensibly similar programs.

Ninety students, thirty program staff, and thirty-four work-setting representatives were the interview subjects. No claim is made for the representativeness of the interview sample. The subjects were selected by the program coordinators on instructions from the investigators to choose program staff, students, and worksetting personnel representative of their programs. It is obvious that many factors such as personal judgment, availability of persons during the time set for interviewing, and proximity of programs within interview sites entered into the final selection. It is assumed, nevertheless, that the sample was an adequate cross-section of experiential programs and their respective populations--at least for exploratory purposes.

Data-Collection Procedures

Time

The duration of the study was August 1, 1978, through November 30, 1979, with the actual time of data collection being March 15 - May 18, 1979. Interviews with each person or group (as in the case of students) lasted no less than one hour and upon occasion as long as three hours.

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2. Louise E. Wasson, Experiential Education: A Primer on Programs (Columbus, Ohio: The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1978), pp. 1-10.

FIGURE 7

BRIEF DESCRIPTIONS OF THE SAMPLE OF PROGRAMS*

ACADEMIC EXPLORATION I Provides high school juniors and seniors an alternative to traditional schooling by having them learn (without pay) working with adults in the community over the period they are in this alternative school. Develops self-knowledge, career knowledge, and essential skills for carrying out life roles.

ACADEMIC EXPLORATION II Places juniors and seniors from a comprehensive high school in a mentor relationship without pay, with a wide variety of workers of different employment levels four days a week for one or two semesters. Projects integrating academic and career learnings are completed by each student.

AUTO MECHANICS Specializes to accommodate senior vocational shop students, who have completed in-school job preparation, in paying auto mechanics jobs for the entire school year. By applying the theory, fundamentals, and skills they acquired in school, students get the work experience to enter job market.

BUSINESS APPRENTICES Places a small number of high school juniors and seniors in paid apprentice-like relationships with workers within a corporation for twenty hours a week over the school year. With a city high school as a partner, this business-sponsored program assists disadvantaged youths in career preparation.

CLINICAL SCIENCE Places senior high school students of outstanding academic achievement and intellectual ability in laboratory situations without pay to give them exposure to actual job situations in mathematics and science fields. Learners spend about six hours per week for a semester in this honors course.

COMMUNITY SERVICE Provides high school seniors opportunities to learn and explore careers through volunteer service to the community for one semester. Much emphasis is placed on reflection sessions which focus on the personal and career meaning of the voluntary experiences.

COMMUNITY VOCATIONS Cultivates specific job skills in high school juniors and seniors by placing them in business sites five half-days a week. On-site vocational education studies mean time and money do not have to be spent on a training period; most students are paid.

EDUCATION FOR WORK Provides high school juniors and seniors paid work experience and activities to learn about the employment cycle of getting, keeping, and leaving a job. Students are at worksites up to twenty hours a week from one to four semesters. In-school activities emphasize job expectations.

ENTERPRISE EDUCATION Prepares high school juniors and seniors for eventual full-time employment in sales, marketing, or merchandising jobs. Students spend half a school day on the job for one to four semesters, receiving pay as they learn on the job.

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* Names of programs have been changed to ensure anonymity.

FIGURE 7 (Cont.)

BRIEF DESCRIPTIONS OF THE SAMPLE OF PROGRAMS*

MANAGEMENT EXPLORATION Provides socially gifted high school juniors and seniors nonpaid opportunities to observe and participate in creative problem solving in a business management setting. For one semester full time, students are in an intern-like relationship with management personnel in various companies.

OPEN ALTERNATIVES As part of an alternative high school, students engage in field-based activities which they negotiate. These nonpaid activities develop basic skills, strengthen human relations skills, encourage independent thinking, and increase self-confidence which can be useful in future careers.

PREAPPRENTICES Provides early school leavers with paid preapprenticeship training for one year. Activities include shop and classroom exercises to develop the necessary skills and knowledge to go out on the job which is part of the program. Participants get one year credit toward an apprenticeship.

PREPARE AND EXPLORE Provides disadvantaged youths placement, orientation, counseling, and monitoring while engaged in paid employment twenty hours a week over the school year. Students are regarded as employees-in-training. Counseling activities by regular employees and a counselor help in work adjustment.

PROFESSIONS APPRENTICES Places academically talented high school seniors in business and professional apprentice-like situations without pay for six to ten hours a week after school hours for a semester. Learners get to try themselves out in a possible career field while getting career exposure.

TRAINING AND EDUCATION Provides economically disadvantaged high school students with paid work experiences in which they can develop job skills and knowledge in a supportive, learning environment. Students may participate up to twenty hours a week for the school year.

WORK AND GROW Provides high school students paid on-the-job training in health careers in a hospital setting. Students learn job skills useful in becoming a nurse's aid and career knowledge and awarenesses that could lead them to pursue education and training for other health careers.

WORK EXPRESSION Places high school juniors and seniors in paid community part-time jobs for the purpose of work experience. The high school, itself, is designed to provide a supportive environment to help youths who are experiencing difficulties in their lives. Developing good work habits and attitudes are the major goals.

WORK TRANSITIONS Provides potential dropouts at the junior high level paid work experience for several hours a week and an in-school program designed to make academics meaningful and career related. Prepares youths for entry-level jobs but also encourages youths to continue on into high school.

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* Names of programs have been changed to ensure anonymity.

Setting and Principals

Students interviewed at the school sites met with the interviewers (R. J. Miguel and L. E. Wasson) in groups of five, usually in a conference-type room. Some coordinators remained; others did not. Their presence or absence seemed to have no effect on the responses. Those who stayed commented on how spontaneous and talkative the students were. Several students were interviewed individually at the work settings.

Program coordinators usually set aside about an hour in their offices whether at school or elsewhere, but extensive information sharing was done en route between interview sites and at lunch. Employers were interviewed at their places of business. At times the interviewers were in a law office, or the middle of a machine shop, or hanging over a car being fixed--in short wherever the work was being done.

Manner of Data Collection

The interview data were taken down in the form of hand-written notes during the interviews. Such items as student logs, worksheets, and schedules were collected. Soon afterwards, the portions of the interviews that were relevant for further analysis were transcribed on data worksheets. Each worksheet was read by both researchers for indications of normative and personalistic dimensions each of which were then written on cards along with their source in the interview data or artifacts.

Measures Taken to Ensure Maximum Response

As previously mentioned, the interviews were conducted informally with gentle prodding by the interviewers to get further elaboration on items of particular relevance to the study. In addition, one of the interviewers made a quick check of all items on the data worksheet to assure complete coverage. In some cases, informants were given a follow-up call to elicit additional information required but not obtained and deemed important in the analysis. Once the data were recorded, they were sent back to the program coordinators for verification. Rarely were changes required, but in several instances additional information or documentation was supplied.

Analysis Procedures

Identification of Normative and Personalistic Indicators

The cards with the data were sorted as follows: (a) in terms of the normative content of role expectations (e.g., employers'

work requirements) and (b) in terms of the personalistic content of learners' needs/dispositions (e.g., career exploration).

In the sorting process it became evident that some of the items had only tenuous or nonprogram association (e.g., what a learner liked to do for recreation) whereas other items could be seen as indicating a program-related indication of the normative or personalistic dimensions. The former items were discarded.

The items retained after this preliminary inspection were again reviewed to derive a minimal number of categories for analytic purposes. The emphasis was placed on defining the major areas of normative and personalistic dimensions, discarding those that seemed of minor importance, such as those that occurred in isolated segments of the program. At this point, the major areas were defined as fundamental program characteristics with clear-cut variation across all the programs in terms of the normative and personalistic dimensions. For example, statements of program goals--an obvious program characteristic--clearly reflect variation of the normative and personalistic dimensions across all the programs. A program goal to develop the skills and attitudes necessary for entry into the auto mechanics field is an indication of the normative dimension. A goal to develop self-awareness by testing one's interests in a variety of experiences is indicative of the personalistic dimension. Twelve major areas were identified:

1. Program goals
2. Nature of career growth
3. Self-concept development
4. Role of program staff
5. Interpretation and internalization
6. Focus of learning activities in work settings
7. Diversity of work-setting experiences
8. Duration of program experiences
9. Relationship to ongoing work and workers
10. Resource person's method of supervision
11. Pay
12. Academic credit

Categorization of Data

A panel of five judges was supplied with detailed descriptions of the theoretical construct of the typology and descriptions of the normative and personalistic dimensions for each of the twelve major areas (see Appendix A of this report for the definitions). The judges were given the opportunity to practice assigning data cards (other than those from the interviews) to either normative or personalistic categories. From this exercise a third category

emerged: a combination of normative and personalistic.[3] Further, some data cards reflected stronger evidence of the normative or personalistic dimensions. The sorting blocks finally agreed upon by the panel are shown in Figure 5.

FIGURE 8: Q-Sort for Normative and Personalistic Data

(N)	(N/P)	(P)
(n)	(N/p)	(p)
	(n/p)	
	(P/n)	

Legend:
N = High normative
P = High personalistic
n = Low normative
p = Low personalistic
2 letters = combination of normative and personalistic

The panel was next instructed to assign cards with interview data to one of the eight variations of normative and/or personalistic dimensions. For each of the twelve major areas, there were eighteen cards--one representing each program. All but forty-three of the 216 cards were assigned by three or more of the five judges to the same category. The other forty-three cards were rewritten to increase the clarity or amount of the information. On the second try, these cards were also categorized with a similar level of agreement. The raw data and the assignment of the cards represent a major portion of the Technical Information and Appendices. For illustrative purposes only a few examples are shown in Figure 9 (see p. 38).

Determination of the Proportional Relationships

In sorting the data cards, the panel indicated for each of the twelve major areas whether the normative or personalistic characteristic was:

- Principal characteristic: dominant or noticeably stronger for a program than for other programs.
- Secondary characteristic: evident but recessive in comparison to other programs with the same type of characteristic.

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3. Getzels' term for this phenomenon is "transactional." Getzels, Social Process (1968), pp. 146-50

For each of the twelve major areas a program could possibly receive a positive rating on both dimensions--hence the origin of transactional types. For example, the goals of a program could be directed primarily along normative lines but could also include a few personalistic goals. A numerical designation was assigned to each card categorized by the judges accordingly:

- N's (high normative) = 2
- n's (low normative) = 1
- P's (high personalistic) = 2
- p's (low personalistic) = 1
- Combinations received a score in both categories (e.g., N/P = 2N + 2P and n/i = 1n + 1p

The numerical designations of all cards for each program were totaled, giving a total score for the normative dimension and a total score for the personalistic dimension. The proportional relationship of normative and personalistic dimensions for each program was calculated by adding together both scores and then dividing that number first into the normative rating to determine the percentage of normative and next into the personalistic rating. For example, if a program received eighteen points for normative and six points for personalistic, the proportions were 75% normative (18 ÷ 24) and 25% personalistic (6 ÷ 24). Due to the either/or nature of the scale used and the absence of finer gradations, some programs appear to be 100% normative or personalistic. This, however, is theoretically impossible and inconsistent with the researchers' observations. The percentages do reflect a reasonable ordering of the programs along the continuum shown in Figure 3 on page 8. Therefore, the purpose of the percentages is to show relative ordering of the programs rather than precise measures of the normative and personalistic dimensions. The precision of such a measure is a researchable item for the future. The resulting proportional relationships were charted revealing several distinct clusterings of programs. Although this is a simplistic procedure, it does enable a positive response to the questions of classification based on qualitative data which is dealt with in the next chapter.

Possible Sources of Unreliability

The interview and analysis techniques described above were employed for exploratory purposes within a qualitative research design. The potential for reducing reliability was great. The principal strategies to control for this were the following:

FIGURE 9

PART I: DATA EXAMPLES OF NORMATIVE CHARACTERISTICS

PROGRAM GOALS

Provides students with vocational training in authentic situations with professionals. It also provides the business community with a chance to groom young people for jobs in area industries.

COMMUNITY VOCATIONS

NATURE OF CAREER GROWTH

The enterprise education program provides career preparation in one of the largest and fastest growing areas of our modern business community--marketing and distribution. In E.E., students can study many diverse marketing topics. These include advertising, salesmanship, merchandising, communication, economics, and many others. Also, individual class members can study specific job-related skills and fields of knowledge important to success in business.

ENTERPRISE EDUCATION

ROLE OF PROGRAM STAFF

My job is to take care of the kids. I've been up the ropes. The door doesn't close at 4:30. They can call me at home. I'm their godfather. Instructors need patience; it's more important than knowledge or expertise. We had an off-season journeyman come in. He couldn't cope with kids. He broke someone's watch and someone else's radio to make them shape up. That's the real world, but they're not ready for that. When we send them out on the job at first, it's a shock to them. We tell them we'll take care of the arguments, you do your job. Give.

PREAPPRENTICES

INTERPRETATION AND INTERNALIZATION

(1) We believe in close supervision, especially in the beginning--there are a lot of standards and regulations to learn. We keep in close touch with employers to reinforce the teachings. We enjoy when a kid screws up (i.e., gets fired). That provides the chance to change their attitudes--which are usually what cause them to get fired. (2) I am firm but understanding with them--try to help them develop good work habits. I wish I could get my own kids to listen as well. (3) We expect proper dress, good grooming, and courtesy to customers. They aren't just like employees--they are employees.

EDUCATION FOR WORK

DIVERSITY OF WORK SETTING EXPERIENCES

We offer a range of situations, but students usually settle on one for most of the program. Hopping around tends to confuse kids and the company doesn't like it. Some people think that career exploration is trying out different jobs, but it isn't. Also, kids got to feel they're a part of work enterprise to benefit.

BUSINESS APPRENTICES

FIGURE 9

PART II: DATA EXAMPLES OF PERSONALISTIC CHARACTERISTICS

PROGRAM GOALS

Develops self-knowledge through learning activities tailored to the interests, abilities, goals, and needs of each student (and) develops essential skills--academic, interpersonal, problem-solving, decision-making--necessary for functioning in today's world.

ACADEMIC EXPLORATION I

NATURE OF CAREER GROWTH

This program is designed for community exploration, not careers. However, being able to make decisions confidently, being able to solve problems creatively, and a general awareness of the advantages and disadvantages of various career choices plus increased self-knowledge are the principal areas of career development a student could get out of the program.

OPEN ALTERNATIVES

ROLE OF PROGRAM STAFF

(1) Staff provide several guidance activities to enable students to get the most out of their participation. Advisors (volunteers) are very accessible for individual counseling sessions. We are not here to solve the students' problems, but to advise them and give support as they work out their own solutions. (2) Advisory group sessions give help in solving problems such as poor communication, isolation, and routine work. (3) A recent survey indicated that a majority of P.A. students considered meeting with advisors the best activity.

PROFESSIONS APPRENTICES

INTERPRETATION AND INTERNALIZATION

Students are provided time at school to discuss their experiences at the work site and the progress of the learning project. While the [community] resource persons give them advice, most of the interpretations of the experiences are done in group or individual sessions here. The emphasis is on the learning process and self-development.

ACADEMIC EXPLORATION II

DIVERSITY OF WORK SETTING EXPERIENCE

Students spend the entire program in one organization, but they get to experience a wide variety of activities as interns. This is encouraged. Students can negotiate many options.

MANAGEMENT EXPLORATION

(1) use of the eighty-seven cell data worksheets for all programs to ensure consistency in coverage of content, (2) use of the same interviewers at all sites, (3) use of two interviewers to assure reasonably consistent recording of the data, (4) pilot-testing the interview schedule and technique, (5) program coordinators' review of the data transcriptions, and (6) use of a panel of judges to ensure reliability of assigning data to categories.

Nevertheless, certain sources of unreliability could not be controlled--for many reasons, but primarily because to do so would have entailed prohibitive cost. The significant reasons were as follows: (1) the subjects interviewed were not necessarily representative of the programs, (2) the data collected represent the "ethnographic present" of the interview data. Multiple interviews at different times were not collected. Perhaps even the same subjects might have responded differently if interviewed at a different time in the year or month or week or day, and (3) the panel may have been "overcued" to assign cards to categories. They were given extensive orientation to the task.

Consequently, the study will not overstate nor understate the reliability of the findings. Its purpose was primarily to set the foundation for the second year of the study--the quantitative phase. To that end, the researchers have reasonable confidence in the results as a basis for proceeding to the next phase.

The results of the study appear in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

This study addressed the following question:

> *Can experiential education programs be classified according to the relationship existing between workplace role expectations and learner needs and dispositions?*

The answer to that question is affirmative inasmuch as preliminary typology can be constructed on the basis of the findings of the qualitative data collected. Incorporated in this chapter are the steps leading to the construction of the typology, the resulting typology, and a summary of the characteristics of the program types.

The Construction of the Typology

Four steps led to the construction of the preliminary typology. First, twelve program characteristics were identified as indicators of the normative and personalistic dimensions:

1. Program goals
2. Nature of career growth
3. Self-concept development
4. Role of program staff
5. Interpretation and internalization
6. Focus of learning activities in work settings
7. Diversity of work-setting experiences
8. Duration of program experiences
9. Relationship of learners to ongoing work and workers
10. Method of supervision employed by resource person
11. Pay
12. Academic credit

Second, With a reasonable measure of reliability, the interview data were categorized by normative and personalistic dimensions for each of the above twelve program characteristics. The categorization of the data by a panel of judges provided a means of showing the proportional relationship of the normative and personalistic dimensions for the programs.

Third, a numerical value assigned to the categorizations of the program data facilitated calculation of the proportional relationship illustrated in Figure 10. The "combined total" column reflects the total number of points given for both normative and personalistic dimensions. The next two columns indicate the score and proportion of the normative dimension. The last two columns indicate the score and proportion for the personalistic dimension. It should be noted that programs K and Q in Figure 10 show 100% for personalistic and normative, respectively. Admittedly, this is not the case. As noted in the previous chapter, this finding is a result of the minimal gradation on the scale used. In addition, the procedures resulting in such calculations were not at this time sufficiently sensitive or inclusive to capture every aspect of the normative and personalistic dimensions. Nevertheless, the purpose of the calculations was to show the relative ordering of the programs, an objective which was accomplished.

Fourth, when the calculations of the proportional relationships were charted, the programs tended to be distributed as shown in Figure 11. The resulting clustering of programs seems reasonable--that is, it portrays programs in a manner consistent with the general observations of the researchers. Five clusters of programs are evident. One group of seven programs clusters toward the normative side of the scale and another group of four programs clusters toward the personalistic side. Three other groups appear between the two extremes.

The Typology

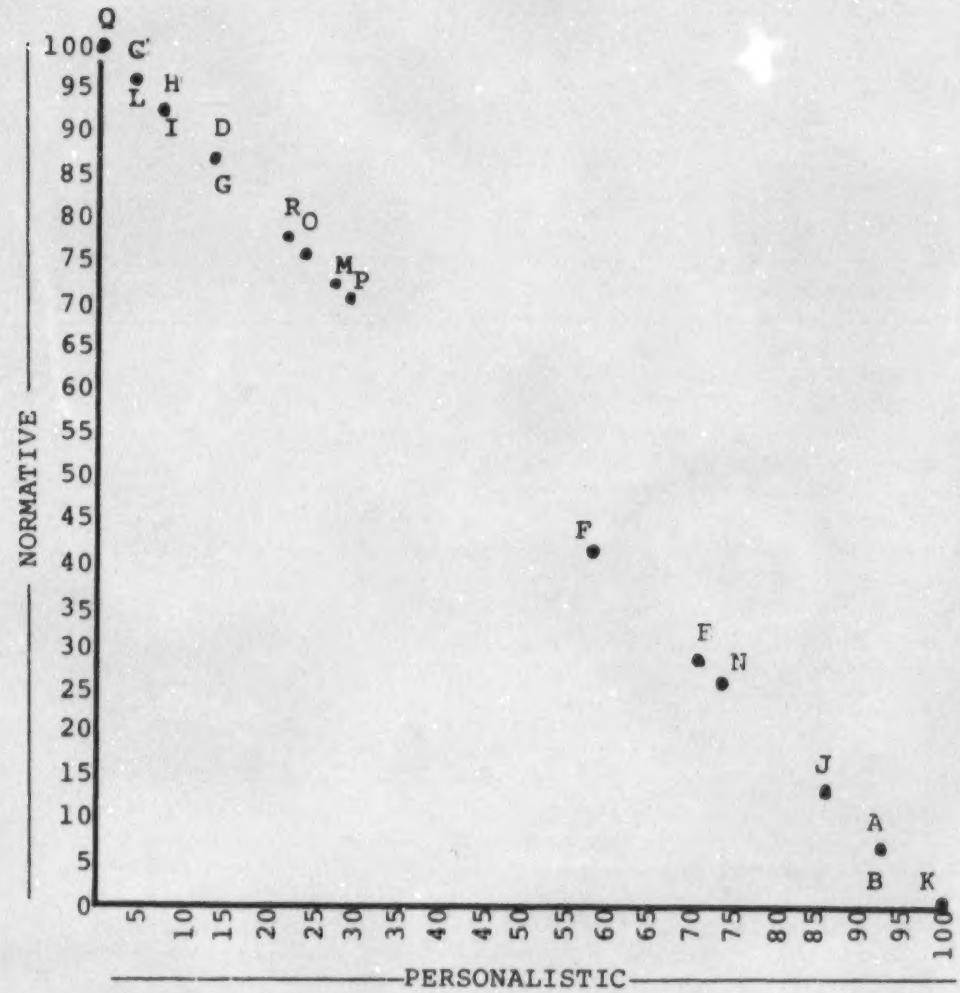
Finally, Figure 12 was created to depict the classification of programs resulting from the data analysis. This preliminary typology shows three main categories of programs: normative, transactional, and personalistic. The transactional category is further divided into three subcategories: adaptive, reciprocal, and transitional. The designation of labels for the categories and subcategories is a matter of convenience. During the quantitative stage of the study next year, these terms will be reviewed and revised in accordance with the relevant theory and research.

Summary of the Characteristics of the Program Types

The following are brief descriptions of the normative, personalistic, and transactional characteristics of experiential education programs. The purpose of the descriptions is to summarize from the findings the salient normative and personalistic dimensions of the programs that led to the typology.

Programs \ Ratings	Combined Total	Total Normative	Percent Normative	Total Personalistic	Percent Personalistic
A. Academic Exploration I	26	2	8%	24	92%
B. Academic Exploration II	26	2	8%	24	92%
C. Auto Mechanics	25	24	96%	1	4%
D. Business Apprentices	27	23	85%	4	15%
E. Clinical Science	31	9	29%	22	71%
F. Community Service	31	13	42%	18	58%
G. Community Vocations	28	24	86%	4	14%
H. Education for Work	26	24	92%	2	8%
I. Enterprise Education	26	24	92%	2	8%
J. Management Exploration	28	4	14%	24	86%
K. Open Alternatives	22	0	0%	22	100%
L. Preapprentices	24	23	96%	1	4%
M. Prepare and Explore	31	22	71%	9	29%
N. Professions Apprentices	30	8	27%	22	73%
O. Training and Education	29	22	76%	7	24%
P. Work and Grow	30	21	70%	9	30%
Q. Work Expression	24	24	100%	0	0%
R. Work Transitions	31	24	77%	7	23%

FIGURE 10: Proportional Relationships of Normative and Personalistic Dimensions



Key to Programs

Q. Work Expression
C. Auto Mechanics
L. Preapprentices
H. Education for Work
I. Enterprise Education
D. Business Apprentices
G. Community Vocations
R. Work Transitions
O. Training and Education
M. Prepare and Explore
P. Work and Grow
F. Community Service
E. Clinical Science
N. Professions Apprentices
J. Management Exploration
A. Academic Exploration I
B. Academic Exploration II
K. Open Alternatives

FIGURE 11: Clustering of Programs Along Normative and Personalistic Dimensions

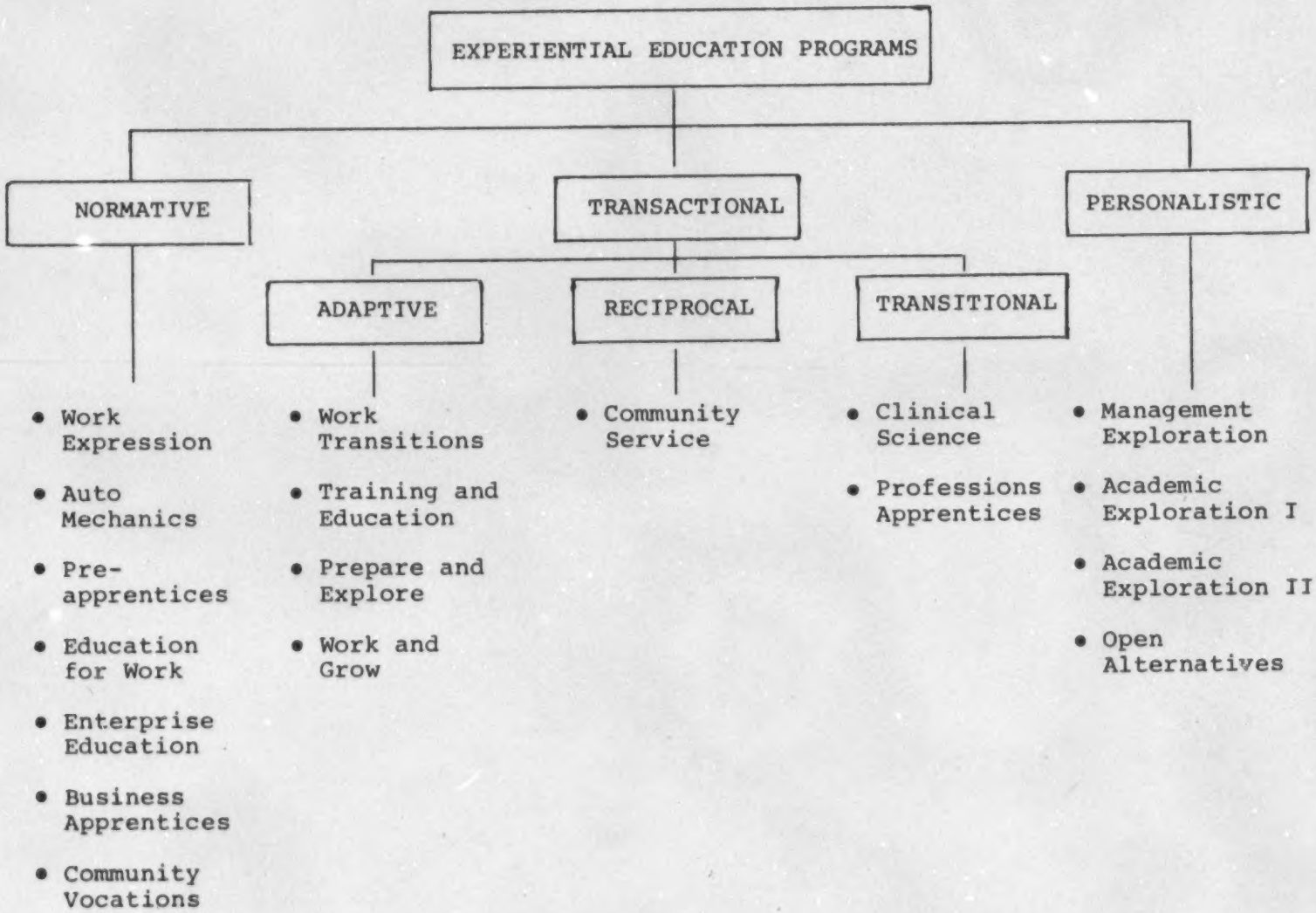


FIGURE 12: Preliminary Typology of Experiential Education Programs

Normative Characteristics

Normative programs emphasize the acquisition of knowledge, attitudes, self-concepts, and skills designed to enhance the learners' chances for success in a chosen field of work and confirm their identity with that work. These programs give very high priority to an understanding of job requirements and work ethics as well as practice in the proper use of tools and procedures specific to the occupation. The most prominent aspect of career progression is occupational preparation--whether for an entry-level job or one with long-term career potential. The type of work institution in which the preparation occurs is usually the same as the one chosen for career pursuit.

The usual role of staff is to make learners aware of the expectations of the workplaces and to assist them in meeting those expectations. In-school learning activities consist of training designed to prepare learners to function successfully in specific work roles. Learners are expected to internalize the rules, regulations, and conventional job wisdoms associated with the work situations as standards for their own behavior. The extent to which they comply in this area is a measure of their success.

Work activities are central to the design of learning activities at the workplaces--they are the curriculum. Learners spend long periods of time (about twenty hours a week for a semester or more) in one work setting. Their work assignment constitutes regular, productive work. Learners assume worker roles early and strive to become independent in those roles. Learner activities are at the discretion of the worksite supervisor. These activities have a routine and repetitive quality and are seldom the same as those of the supervisor.

Learners are usually paid and, therefore, are subject to the same consequences and controls as regular workers who are paid. If academic credits are given, they are referred to as work-experience credits and do not replace required academic subjects.

Personalistic Characteristics

Personalistic programs emphasize the needs, interests, and dispositions of the learners in every aspect of program operation. The major outcomes sought are in the domain of personal growth. Work settings and their activities are not the object but the medium of learning. In regard to career development the objectives are in career awareness and exploration rather than in preparation for specific work.

Exploration is an important step in identity formation and, as the primary learning activity, aids greatly in self-concept

development. Learners seek many opportunities to test themselves in a variety of situations--a necessary activity prior to career choice and implementation. Unlike the normative experience, success in exploration can actually be several "failures" or rejected activities if some self-knowledge results.

Central to the role of program staff is attention to learner needs and interests, as well as assistance to learners in their pursuit of personal goals. In-school activities are devoted to interpretation of the experiences in personal terms. Learners are not expected to internalize the expectations of workplaces. Rather they discuss their positive and negative reactions to those expectations and examine their long-term implications.

The personal objectives of learners are the central focus of activities at the workplace. Learners and program staff negotiate with employers and others to create a learning environment conducive to learner objectives while not disruptive to the operations of the workplaces. Learners usually spend short periods of time in a variety of work situations and they seldom are expected to do ongoing, productive work. Workplace supervisors communicate with learners on a personal level in a mentoring relationship. Learners often get to do work similar to that of the supervisor and are encouraged to undertake original projects.

Learners, in most instances nonpaid, are therefore not subject to the consequences or controls of pay. When academic credit is awarded, it is either for academic or elective subjects--the total amount rarely exceeding the equivalent of the credits assigned for one regular course.

Transactional Characteristics

A transactional program has a combination of normative and personalistic characteristics to the degree that the program acquires a hybrid quality. Since experiential education programs deal primarily with transitions from school to work, exhibiting varying degrees of attention to workplace norms and learner needs, it is not surprising that many of the programs are characterized by this transactional quality.

The greater the emphasis on learner needs and dispositions the closer the program will be to personalistic in type. Conversely, the closer the emphasis is to workplace roles and expectations, the closer the program to normative type. The significant proportions of both the dimensions is what distinguishes the program as transactional. It is the balance between normative and personalistic dimensions set up and maintained by the programs that defines transactional learning experiences and outcomes.

The three subcategories of the transactional program type shown in Figure 12 reflect this classification in the following way. The Adaptive-Transactional subtype places a strong emphasis on normative characteristics but recognizes the need for attention to learner needs for career exploration and support and guidance in developing work attitudes and skills. The Transitional-Transactional emphasizes learner needs for in-depth exploration and self-awareness but within a realistic work situation, one in which actual work roles are tried out. The Reciprocal-Transactional Type provides a dual emphasis on the normative and personalistic dimensions for the best of both worlds.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter briefly summarizes the results of the study, presents conclusions and recommendations for the second year of the study, provides preliminary recommendations for future research, indicates possible suggestions for practice, and outlines the next steps of the investigations.

Summary

Although there have been many studies of various experiential education programs and although several typologies have been attempted, no existing classification of experiential programs is grounded in a theoretically consistent and systematically researched conceptual scheme. There is a need for such a typology because it will provide clearer understanding of differences in program outcomes and insights into other substantive differences surrounding experiential education programs.

The proposed typology and the knowledge it provides can be an effective tool in guiding systematic inquiry in the study of experiential education. The contribution at this point is intended for the research community, but ultimately the typology will benefit practitioners and the learners they serve. For example, it could help program coordinators understand the implications of normative and personalistic dimensions for the learning activities they arrange and it could show how program characteristics could be manipulated to change the proportions of the dimensions when desirable. It could help in the matching of learners with programs, with work-setting environments, and with work-site sponsors. Further, the typology could provide a guide for the review and assessment of programs.

A critical step in the construction of a typology for experiential education is the determination of its theoretical basis. An important conceptual framework in which education has been studied is that of normative and personalistic dimensions--a theoretical construct conceptualized by Getzels and his associates and widely used in research and practice. These concepts were applied to this study of experiential education and, through

interviews with learners, program personnel, and employers, data revealed an ordering of programs along normative and personalistic dimensions. The tendency of the programs to distribute themselves in fairly distinct clusters led to a preliminary typology consisting of the following classes:[1]

- Class 1: Normative
- Class 2: Transactional
  - 2a: Adaptive Subclass
  - 2b: Reciprocal Subclass
  - 2c: Transitional Subclass
- Class 3: Personalistic

Recommendations for the Second Year of the Study

The promising results of this exploratory study make it possible to proceed to the quantitive phase of the study with reasonable confidence. Using a more rigorous research design, the next year's work should, at the very least, attend to the following matters. Certain parts of the methodology should be replicated (especially the sorting procedures used by the panel of judges and the procedures to determine the proportional relationship of the normative and personalistic dimensions). Certain ambiguities raised by the first year's work must be dealt with before initiating the quantitative phase if the second year's work is to be accomplished with reliability. For example, the sorting process used by the judges should be tried out again to establish without a doubt the assignment of items to normative, personalistic, and transactional categories. Also, the procedure to assign a quantitative value to the relative strength of the characteristics needs to be reexamined. The resulting proportions for two of the programs revealed a 100% rating on one dimension. This finding is inconsistent with the theoretical construct and with the interviewers' observations. Several readily apparent reasons could explain why the two programs received a 100% rating (i.e., the simplistic technique of either/or-type ratings). However, this phenomenon must be examined more closely because of its implications for all the scores. Two other areas that should be reviewed are (1) consistency of various perceptions of normative, personalistic, and transactional dimensions as reflected in major program characteristics, and (2) clearer delineations of the dimensions across the major areas of program characteristics.

Among the considerations for the second year of the study, the selection of experiential programs should more closely

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1. See Figures 10, 11, and 12 on pages 43 - 45 of this report for further illustration of the typology.

approximate a representative sample. After programs are selected, the respondent sample should include all students, staff, and work-place personnel associated with each program. In programs where the number of learners exceeds fifty, an appropriate sampling technique should be used. The development of instruments to collect the data should take into account the extensiveness (i.e., how widespread) and the intensity (i.e., how much emphasis is placed upon) of the normative, personalistic, and transactional characteristics. The instruments should be incrementally pilot tested to establish their reliability before entertaining any widespread data collection.

Preliminary Recommendations for Future Research

Admittedly, the results of the first year's work, although promising, are tentative. However, they do seem to indicate some direction for future research.

An inspection of the typology classes raises researchable questions which should be pursued. For example, there is a tendency of the sampled programs to polarize toward the extremes of the normative and personalistic dimensions--what does this mean? Is a transactional program type an ideal, since it emphasizes both normative and personalistic features, or does the intentional inclusion of both dimensions produce a canceling-out effect? Does the array of programs reflect a natural developmental continuum or "boxes" into which certain types of learners are placed? Are the transactional programs interpolations between normative and personalistic programs or do they represent a unique dimension?

The preliminary typology also enables the Learning-in-Work Research Program at the National Center to be in a better position to operationalize its research framework (see page 4). Research questions on the content, process, structure, function, and patterns of experiential education become more meaningful using the normative-personalistic frame of reference provided by the typology. For example, what are the outcomes of being in a normative program as compared with a personalistic or transactional program? How does a learner with a normative frame of reference go about learning in a personalistic-type program? Which students are generally served by normative or personalistic programs? What benefits are sacrificed by exclusive participations in one program type? Must appropriate concessions be made to different learning styles by program types and if concessions are not made, what are the consequences? What is the significance of learners' discrepant perceptions of the normative and personalistic dimensions of a given experiential environment?

Possible Areas of Inquiry for Applied Research

Clearly, it was not the work of this study to generate recommendations for practice. Although data were not collected on the consequences of a program's being classified normative, personalistic, or transactional, suggestions can be made as a means of entertaining future applications of the typology to practice and to stimulate possible areas of inquiry for applied research. Only a few suggestions for illustrative purposes will be made here.

Existing programs could be studied according to the normative and personalistic point of view to determine important distinctions about what youths are learning about work. The typology may also be used by program staff and employers to discuss how a normative program can be supplemented by personalistic elements and vice versa. Another possibility to be investigated would be to use the typology as a basis for selection and placement of learners into programs or to match learners to workplace situations available within a program's opportunity structure.

Next Steps

The second phase of this typology study is to be conducted during the period between December 1, 1979, and November 30, 1980. In this quantitative phase a larger more representative sample of programs will be studied, using instruments based upon the findings of the first year's work. The anticipated results will be a comprehensive typology of experiential programs grounded in theory and empirically tested, and a methodology and instruments for classifying experiential programs according to normative and personalistic dimensions manifested in key program characteristics.

APPENDIX A

DESCRIPTIONS OF NORMATIVE AND PERSONALISTIC DIMENSIONS BY MAJOR AREAS OF PROGRAM CHARACTERISTICS

1. PROGRAM GOALS

Normative: Written statements of program goals emphasize the acquisition of knowledge and positive attitudes as well as the mastery of skills that will enhance the learner's chances for success in the workplace. The development of work ethics, occupational skills (including the use of work tools), understanding of job tasks, and habits of industry receive highest priority.

Personalistic: Flexible, mature personal behavior is the major outcome expected from the programs. Of primary importance in shaping program goals are the needs, interests, and dispositions of the learners who often play an important role in determining the goals. The workplace--with its attendant job skills, work tools, and work ethics--serves as a medium for personal growth, not as the object of the learning process. The hallmarks of the program are career awareness and exploration rather than career preparation.

2. NATURE OF CAREER GROWTH

Normative: In some programs, experiences contribute occupational preparation for an immediate employment need (e.g., proficiency in entry-level skills). Meeting such needs may be the sole objective. In other programs, competency acquired is regarded as a "leg-up" for a job, even though the particular job may have limited career potential. In occupational fields which have career potential but which require apprenticeships or intensive training for entry, program experiences provide the preliminary steps.

Personalistic: Experiences aid in long-range planning, helping learners with decisions related to career choices. While some career preparation may result, the principal purpose of the program activities is to provide career/occupational awareness and/or exploration. In some instances, the purpose may be the self-development required for future career activities.

3. SELF-CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

Normative: The principal intention of self-concept formation is to develop self-concepts suitable to the work efforts of particular groups, organizations, or occupations. For learners with ill-defined self-concepts, these early work experiences become the principal, if not the first, force in shaping their views of themselves as workers. For learners whose vocational self-concepts are well defined, their work experiences serve as an extension or implementation of these self-concepts (identification in a psychological sense).

Personalistic: The purpose of self-concept development is clarification. Some learners have confused concepts as to who they are and what they can do. Others have clear concepts of themselves in terms of specific experiences, considering themselves good in athletics, superior in academic areas, or lacking creative ability but strong in social relations. These are learners who like to try out the concepts in work settings, using the program to test their views of themselves. For example: Am I like a lawyer? Do I enjoy what a lawyer does? Regardless of individual cases, they are seeking a broad base of information for the clarification process, and the results often contribute to a variety of learning objectives.

4. ROLE OF PROGRAM STAFF

Normative: Program staff members are thoroughly cognizant of the expectations of workplaces and of what learners need to know and do to perform successfully in chosen occupational areas. It is the role of the staff to transfer the knowledge and skills to learners in order to equip them for the expectations of the workplace. Staff members often play the role of the employer to make learners more comfortable. They visit work sites and confer with resource people to assess program progress and to identify problems. They are generous with praise for jobs well done and free with suggestions for improvement. In-school activities are all designed to prepare students to function successfully in work roles.

Personalistic: The role of the staff is characterized by interaction with the learners designed to help them achieve personal and academic objectives. Central to the role is attention to learner needs and interests. In-school activities focus on those needs, expectations, and concerns. Learners are encouraged to take the initiative in discussions and sharing sessions with the staff and are expected to seek help when they are unable to resolve difficult problems on their own. Also, inherent in the staff role is negotiation with representatives of the work establishment. Work sites are visited by staff members to determine suitability of the experiences (in both quantity and quality) and to ensure the absence of exploitation.

5. INTERPRETATION AND INTERNALIZATION

Normative: Learners play a relatively passive role in the interpretation of the experiences. Resource persons, who are the experts and more knowledgeable about work, provide the interpretation. Program staff are instrumental in adding the reinforcement or clarification of the interpretation. Although, in some cases, interpretation activities are not a planned part of the program, learners are expected to internalize the rules, regulations, and conventional job wisdoms associated with the work setting as standards for their own behavior. The extent to which they do this is a measure of their success in the work settings.

Personalistic: Learners play an active role in the interpretation process. Since emphasis is placed on personal growth, interpretation is centered in the attitudes and feelings learners have regarding their experiences in work settings. Resource persons, program staff, and other students provide the perspective and context for their assessment of the experiences--but not the content. In short, the learners, who are searching for personal growth, are not expected to internalize workplace expectations. Their only relationship to expectations is to observe those that apply to them personally in order to avoid disrupting the operations of the workplaces.

6. FOCUS OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES IN WORK SETTINGS

Normative: Work activities are the central focus of the learning design and, in a sense, the work itself is the curriculum. It is the resource person who makes most of the decisions regarding the activities, decisions usually based on the ability and readiness of the learners to assume the work successfully.

Personalistic: The personal objectives of the learners are the central focus of the learning design at the workplace. Activities, which are usually planned jointly by the learner, a staff member, and a resource person, are related to the work of the workplace, but not necessarily vital to it. For accomplishing their projects, learners are provided reasonable access to equipment, working space, and resource persons.

7. DIVERSITY OF WORK-SETTING EXPERIENCES

Normative: Learners spend most of their time in one assignment which constitutes regular, productive work of the organizations. The object is for the learners to achieve independence in doing the work and sometime during their stay they actually assume the role of worker in a specific job.

Personalistic: Learners' experiences are characterized by diversity. They may complete their program experiences in several different workplaces. Or, they may experience several different work situations within one workplace. If they are placed in a single situation (e.g., a realtor's office), they experience varied tasks and many exploratory options.

8. DURATION OF PROGRAM EXPERIENCES

Normative: Learners spend a great deal of time at a work setting. They may be there up to twenty hours a week and their stays last from one semester to two or three years.

Personalistic: Learners spend short periods of time at the work setting. They spend fewer than ten hours a week and rarely more than one semester in any one work situation. The proportion of their time at the workplace to time spent in school (all subjects taken into account) is small.

9. RELATIONSHIP TO ONGOING WORK AND WORKERS

Normative: Learners assume worker roles early, often working alongside other entry-level workers. Learners are expected to contribute to the productivity of the workplaces.

Personalistic: Learners' experiences, often not crucial to the ongoing work, are seen as peripheral to the productivity of the workplaces. In some cases, learners' activities are useful and complementary contributions to the ongoing work, but they do not necessarily represent lasting or vital productivity because of their short-lived nature. Learners are participant observers, rarely fully assuming a worker role for a sustained period of time.

10. RESOURCE PERSON'S METHOD OF SUPERVISION

Normative: Supervision of learners is similar to that of other workers, including issuing orders and directives and checking to see that they are carried out promptly and adequately. Learners' duties are often routine, delegated by supervisors, and seldom the same as supervisors' duties.

Personalistic: Supervisors spend much time with learners while they are at the work settings. Supervisors communicate on a personal level in a mentoring relationship to help learners complete their activities successfully. Learners often get to do work similar to that of the supervisors, including original projects useful to supervisors in carrying out their own duties.

11. PAY

Normative: Learners are usually paid and consequently must comply with employer expectations. The learners experience the same consequences regarding pay as other workers (e.g., docking for tardiness, raises). These conditions are especially true if the employer is the source of the pay.

Personalistic: Learners are seldom paid for their experiences. Since pay is not a factor in "controlling" learners, other arrangements are made. Usually learners perform to a set of expectations mutually agreed upon with the resource persons (i.e., learning contracts).

12. ACADEMIC CREDIT

Normative: Learners usually receive academic credits designated as work experience credits. Schools have limitations as to how many of these credits can be applied for. Learners who are released for major portions of the school day (e.g., to work for four hours) usually need the credits to graduate.

Personalistic: There is considerable variability in regard to academic credit. Some programs offer credit in academic subjects; others offer elective credits. Some students apply for it; others do not because they do not need it. These variations also occur within programs. The major feature seems to be its optional character.

MASTER
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